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Maternal antibody inhibition of recombinant Newcastle disease virus vectored vaccine in a primary or booster avian influenza vaccination program of broiler chickens



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ABSTRACT

Maternally-derived antibodies (MDA) provide early protection from disease, but may interfere with active immunity in young chicks. In highly pathogenic avian influenza virus (HPAIV)-enzootic countries, broiler chickens typically have MDA to Newcastle disease virus (NDV) and H5 HPAIV, and their impact on active immunity from recombinant vectored vaccines is unclear. We assessed the effectiveness of a spray-applied recombinant NDV vaccine with H5 AIV insert (rNDV-H5) and a recombinant turkey herpesvirus (HVT) vaccine with H5 AlV insert (rHVT-H5) in commercial broilers with MDA to NDV alone (MDA:AIV-NDV+) or to NDV plus AIV (MDA:AIV+NDV+) to provide protection against homologous HPAIV challenge. In Experiment 1, chicks were spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks (3w) and challenged at 5 weeks (5w). All sham-vaccinated progeny lacked AIV antibodies and died following challenge. In rNDV-H5 vaccine groups, AIV and NDV MDA had completely declined to non-detectable levels by vaccination, enabling rNDV-H5 spray vaccine to elicit a protective AIV antibody response by 5w, with 70-78% survival and significant reduction of virus shedding compared to shams. In Experiment 2, progeny were vaccinated with rHVT-H5 and rNDV-H5 at 1 day (1d) or 3w and challenged at 5w. All shamvaccinated progeny lacked AIV antibodies and died following challenge. In rHVT-H5(1d) vaccine groups, irrespective of rNDV-H5(3w) boost, AIV antibodies reached protective levels pre-challenge, as all progeny survived and virus shedding significantly decreased compared to shams. In contrast, rNDV-H5-vaccinated progeny had AIV and/or NDV MDA at the time of vaccination (1d and/or 3w) and failed to develop a protective immune response by 5w, resulting in 100% mortality after challenge. Our results demonstrate that MDA to AIV had minimal impact on the effectiveness of rHVT-H5, but MDA to AIV and/or NDV at the time of vaccination can prevent development of protective immunity from a primary or booster rNDV-H5

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Abbreviations: APMV-1, avian paramyxovirus 1; BHI, brain heart infusion; d, day old; dpc, days post-challenge; dpv, days post-vaccination; EID₅₀, mean egg infectious doses; GMT, geometric mean titers; HA, hemagglutinatin; HI, hemagglutination inhibition; HPAIV, highly pathogenic avian influenza virus; HVT, turkey herpesvirus; IBDV, infectious bursal disease virus; LPAIV, low pathogenicity avian influenza virus; MDA, maternally-derived antibodies; MDT, mean death time; MDV, Marek's disease virus; NDV, Newcastle disease virus; qRRT-PCR, quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction; rgH5N1, reverse genetics H5N1 vaccine; rHVT-H5, recombinant HVT vaccine with H5 AIV insert; rNDV-H5, recombinant NDV vaccine with H5 AIV insert; SEPRL, Southeast Poultry Research Laboratory; SPF, specific pathogen free; Tk/MN/15, A/turkey/Minnesota/12582/2015 (H5N2) HPAIV; w, weeks old.

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1. Introduction

Outbreaks of highly pathogenic (HP) avian influenza (AI) virus (AIV) in poultry and wild birds have had a devastating economic and social impact worldwide [1,2]. The Eurasian H5N1 HPAIV that emerged in late 1990s in China [3] has expanded from Asia to Europe, Africa, and North America [4]. Also, H5 or H7 HPAIV have become enzootic in China, Indonesia, Vietnam, Bangladesh, Hong Kong, Egypt, and Mexico [5]. Newcastle disease (ND) is a significant worldwide disease of poultry caused by virulent strains of avian avulavirus 1 (former avian paramyxovirus 1 [APMV-1]), commonly known as Newcastle disease virus (NDV) [6-8]. The NDV is enzootic in multiple countries in Europe, Africa, the Middle East, Asia, Central America, and the northern part of South America, and has resulted in at least 4 panzootic outbreaks since it was first identified in the 1920s [9]. Oncogenic Marek's disease virus (MDV) is a worldwide, highly contagious, lymphoproliferative disease of chickens [10,11]. Therefore, vaccination programs have been developed to control all three pathogens. Routine vaccination against HPAIV has been used in control programs of enzootic countries, generally with inactivated whole-virus vaccines or recombinant vector vaccines expressing the hemagglutinin (HA) protein (i.e. the critical antigen to elicit neutralizing antibodies) with even more countries using targeted or risk-based strategies to reduce the costs and increase the efficiency of the HPAIV vaccination programs [5]. By contrast, routine vaccination against NDV is performed virtually worldwide [12,13], and immunization using MDV serotype 3 (MDV-3), also known as turkey herpesvirus (HVT), is used worldwide to protect chicken populations against MDV, but also HVT is used as a vaccine vector for other important viral poultry diseases including H5 AIV [11].

As a consequence of these routine vaccination campaigns, NDV and/or H5 HA maternally-derived antibodies (MDA) are found in the progeny of vaccinated meat chicken breeder flocks [14–17]. Noteworthy, cell-associated HVT vaccines, the most common type of HVT vaccine preparation, induce protection through cellmediated immunity, which is not passed through the egg volk to progeny [10,11]. For AIV, NDV, and other agents, the MDA are naturally passed from the hen to the chick through the egg yolk [18,19]. The type and amount of MDA transferred is representative of the circulating antibodies in the hen (produced from vaccination or by natural infection) at the time the egg was laid, and they have a characteristic half-life similar to host antibodies before they naturally degrade in the chick, usually between 2 and 3 weeks of age [19]. Although MDA can prevent or reduce clinical disease by passive immunization during the first weeks of the chick's life [20,21], they can also hinder the immune response to vaccination as seen with infectious bursal disease virus (IBDV) [22], NDV [16,23,24], and AIV [17,25-31] vaccines. Such MDA interference seems to be one of the reasons for the lack of virus eradication success in several HPAIV-enzootic countries using AIV vaccination, such as Egypt and Mexico [25,27,29,32]. This is particularly relevant for inactivated antigens (which comprise the most widely used field vaccines [33]), that are processed through the exogenous antigen presentation pathway [27,34] and therefore are susceptible to be bound by MDA, preventing proper antigen presentation to B cells and initiation of a primary humoral immune response [34]. Similarly, some recombinant vector vaccines, such as fowlpox or NDV, expressing the HA protein have shown to be impacted by MDA interference not only with the response to the HA protein, but also with the replication of the vector, diminishing the protective immune response to both [35,36].

The prime-boost approach is an effective vaccination strategy in HPAIV control; the viral vector vaccines work best as a primer *in ovo* or at 1 day old at the hatchery, and a different type of vaccine, often an inactivated adjuvanted vaccine, is given later as a boost on

the farm at 3 weeks of age or older [36]. However, inactivated vaccines are negatively impacted by MDA, and their use requires handling and injection of individual chickens on the farm, creating a compromised biosecurity situation and high cost application scenario. As a consequence, there is growing interest for new vaccines and vaccination programs using recombinant vector vaccines that can fight off multiple diseases at the same time, overcome MDA interference, and be mass-applied in the hatchery or on the farm. The recombinant HVT vaccine with H5 AIV insert (rHVT-H5) is designed primarily for subcutaneous administration at 1 day of age in chicks and, because the virus spreads primarily cell to cell, it appears to lack or have minimal suppression when H5 MDA are present [36]. Studies using specific pathogen free (SPF) layers [37,38], commercial broilers [39,40], and commercial layers [41] suggested that rHVT-H5 vaccine is able to confer good protection against different H5N1 HPAIV isolates and clades, and that it is able to overcome the neutralizing effect of H5 MDA. In contrast, the recombinant NDV vaccines with H5 AIV insert (rNDV-H5) can be mass administered by drinking water or aerosol (spray) application. Because the cost of administration is such a large part of the cost of vaccination, a mass vaccination approach is greatly desired and is one of the primary benefits of rNDV-H5 [36]. The rNDV-H5 vaccines have shown to provide protection against LPAIV, HPAIV, and NDV velogenic challenges in SPF chickens without maternal immunity vaccinated by several different routes [36,42]. On the contrary, numerous studies indicate that high levels of NDV and/or H5 MDA can interfere with the protection of the rNDV-H5 vaccine against HPAIV challenge [28,31,36,43]. Yet, some studies using passively-transferred AIV antibody in young layer chicks show that the rNDV-H5 vaccine could provide an initial priming of the immune response [28,31]. Also, a high dose of rNDV-H5 vaccine given by eye drop to 8-day-old broilers seems to overcome AIV and NDV MDA [43].

Despite possible MDA interference to the vector, numerous advantages make rNDV-H5 vaccines ideal for AIV vaccine development [33]: (i) vaccination of chickens for NDV is routine worldwide: (ii) rNDV-H5 vector vaccines can be mass applied through spray in the hatchery or drinking water: (iii) NDV efficiently replicates in AIV-target tissues and organs, thus inducing strong local and systemic immune responses at the respiratory tract [44]; and (iv) NDV replicates in both chickens and turkeys. Overall, these benefits underscore the need for continued evaluation and optimization of rNDV-H5 vaccines and vaccination programs that can overcome passive immunity and be mass-applied in the field. Therefore, the goal of the present study was not to assess the efficacy of rNDV-H5 and rHVT-H5 vaccines for licensing, as both vaccines are registered in multiple countries including China and Mexico [45], but to determine their effectiveness under conditions experienced in a field vaccination program. This study assessed the effectiveness of a spray-applied rNDV-H5 vector vaccine (Experiment 1) and prime-boost protocols using rHVT-H5 and rNDV-H5 vaccines (Experiment 2) in vaccination programs utilizing commercial broiler chickens with MDA for protection against a homologous HPAIV challenge.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Vaccines

Four vaccines were utilized in this study. First, a commercial tetravalent inactivated vaccine (hereafter LaSota) (Bursa Guard N-B-R, Boehringer Ingelheim, Gainesville, GA) included LaSota NDV strain, IBDV (standard and variant E strains), infectious bronchitis virus (Massachusetts and Arkansas serotypes), and reovirus (1133, 2408, and MSB strains). The inactivated LaSota vaccine

was administered intramuscularly in the broiler breeders at preinactivation titers equivalent to 7.7 log₁₀ PFU/0.5 ml per bird, as per manufacturer's recommendation, to boost pre-existing NDV antibody titers. Second, an experimental inactivated reverse genetics H5N1 vaccine (hereafter rgH5N1) contained the HA gene from clade 2.3.4.4 A/gyrfalcon/Washington/40188-6/2014 (H5N8) HPAIV, with the polybasic cleavage site of the HA gene altered to a typical cleavage site sequence of low pathogenicity (LP) AIV, and the remaining 7 backbone segments from the A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 (H1N1) common vaccine strain. The rgH5N1 virus was inactivated with 0.1% β-propiolactone (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and used to prepare an oil-in-water vaccine utilizing a mineral oil-based emulsion (Montanide ISA 70VG, SEPPIC, Paris, France) [46–49]. The vaccine was administered subcutaneously in half of the broiler breeders in a dose of 512 HA units/0.5 ml per bird to induce H5 AIV humoral antibodies. Third, an experimental rNDV-H5 vector vaccine (hereafter rNDV-H5) based on the NDV LaSota vector expressing the H5 ectodomain from clade 2.3.4.4 A/chicken/Iowa/04-20/2015 (H5N2) HPAIV with the polybasic cleavage site altered to LPAIV [42] (courtesy of Dr. Garcia-Sastre, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, NY) was used. The vaccine was administered to broiler breeder progeny of Experiments 1 and 2 in a spray cabinet made ad hoc (courtesy of David Smith, Boehringer Ingelheim) using 40 µm nozzle, 50 lb pressure, and 15 min contact time, in a dose of 7 log₁₀ mean egg infectious doses (EID₅₀)/ml spray. The rNDV-H5 spray vaccination was validated in a pilot study using SPF White Leghorn chickens (n = 5); all chickens shed NDV by the oropharynx during the first 6 days post-vaccination (dpv) (peak virus shedding of 5 log₁₀ EID₅₀/ml at 5 dpv) and seroconverted by 9 dpv (5.8 log₂ geometric mean titers [GMT]) (data not shown). Fourth, an experimental rHVT-H5 vector vaccine (hereafter rHVT-H5) (Boehringer Ingelheim) based on the recombinant HVT vector expressing a codon-optimized synthetic H5 from clade 2.3.4.4 A/chicken/Washington/61-9/2014 (H5N2) HPAIV with the polybasic cleavage site altered to LPAIV was used. The vaccine was administered subcutaneously in broiler breeder progeny of Experiment 2 in a dose of 3.1 log₁₀ PFU/0.2 ml per bird.

2.2. Virus

The Eurasian-origin clade 2.3.4.4 A/turkey/Minnesota/12582/2015 (H5N2) HPAIV (Tk/MN/15) isolate was used as challenge virus. The Tk/MN/15 virus was selected because it is chicken-adapted and is representative of the Midwest U.S. H5N2 outbreak (2015) viruses that clustered both phenotypically [50] and phylogenetically [51]. The virus was propagated and titrated by allantoic sac inoculation in 9 day-old embryonating chicken eggs by standard methods [52].

2.3. Animals, housing, and experimental design

All procedures were performed according to the requirements of the protocol approved by the Institutional Laboratory Animal Care and Use Committee. Forty broiler breeder hens and 4 roosters (Ross) at 29 weeks of age for Experiment 1, and 48 broiler breeder hens and 6 roosters (Cobb) at 26 weeks of age for Experiment 2, were obtained from commercial producers (courtesy of John Smith and Sarah Tilley, Fieldale Farms Corp., Baldwin, GA). All birds had received a routine field vaccination program that included *in ovo* cell-associated HVT vaccination and multiple post-hatch live NDV vaccinations. All birds were kept at the Southeast Poultry Research Laboratory (SEPRL) animal biosafety level 2 (ABSL-2) facilities with the precision feeding regime outlined by the producer and *ad libitum* access to water and 16 h of daily light. In order to reproduce levels of NDV antibody titers in commercial broilers of HPAIV-

and NDV-enzootic countries, all hens received additional doses of tetravalent LaSota vaccine (Fig. 1). For each experiment, half of the hens received 3 doses of rgH5N1 vaccine (Fig. 1) and were used to produce chicks with AIV MDA, in addition to NDV (hereafter MDA:AIV+NDV+ progeny). The other half of the hens from each experiment were not vaccinated against AIV (Fig. 1) and used to produce chicks without AIV MDA, but with NDV (hereafter MDA: AIV-NDV+ progeny). Two weeks after the last vaccination, serum from hens and yolk from laid eggs were tested by hemagglutination inhibition (HI) test to confirm high levels of AIV and NDV antibodies, as a means to predict the transfer of MDA titers to progeny (Fig. 2). Embryonating eggs were collected and incubated at 37.8 °C (1500 Incubator and 1500 Hatcher, GQF, Savannah, GA) for 21 days. The newly hatched chicks were allocated into different experimental units (n = 10 per group) in ABSL-2 and administered rHVT-H5 vaccine and/or rNDV-H5 vaccine, or were sham-vaccinated according to each experimental design (Tables 1 and 2). At 5 weeks old (5w), all progeny were moved to SEPRL ABSL-3 facilities and challenged by the choanal route with 6.9 $\log_{10} EID_{50}$ of Tk/MN/15 virus. The inoculum titer was verified by back titration in SPF embryonating chicken eggs.

2.4. Sampling

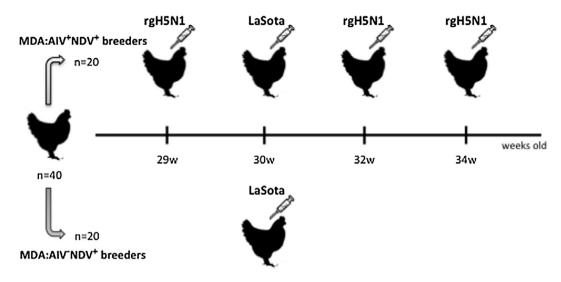
All challenged birds were monitored daily for 2 weeks for clinical signs and mortality. Severely ill birds were euthanized by cervical dislocation and counted as dead for the next day in mean death time (MDT) calculations. Oropharyngeal swabs were collected at 2 and 4 days post-challenge (dpc) in 1.5 ml brain heart infusion (BHI) media (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Sparks, MD) with penicillin (2000 units/ml; Sigma Aldrich), gentamicin (200 lg/ml; Sigma Aldrich) and amphotericin B (5 lg/ml; Sigma Aldrich). Serum samples were collected at 1 day old (following euthanasia), weekly (1, 2, and 3 weeks old), before challenge (5 weeks old), and at termination (7 weeks old).

2.5. Hemagglutination inhibition (HI) assays

Serum and yolk samples were tested by AIV and NDV HI assays. Yolk samples were prepared as previously described [53]. Briefly, yolk material was collected from each test egg and diluted 1:2 in phosphate-buffered saline (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The mixture was vortexed, incubated at room temperature for 1 h, and centrifuged at $1500 \times g$ for 30 min at 4 °C. The aqueous phase was collected and used in the HI assay [53]. The HI assays were carried out using antigens clade 2.3.4.4 A/gyrfalcon/Washington/40188-6/20 14 (H5N8) HPAIV and LaSota NDV. The antigens were prepared as previously described [54] and the HI assays were expressed as log₂ GMT. Samples with titers below 3 log₂ GMT were considered negative.

2.6. Determination of virus shedding from swabs

Swab samples in BHI were processed for quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (qRRT-PCR) [55] with modifications [56] to determine viral RNA titers. The standard curves for viral RNA quantification were established with RNA extracted from dilutions of the same titrated stocks of the challenge virus. The limit of detection was 2.0 log₁₀ EID₅₀/ml; for statistical purposes, qRRT-PCR negative samples were treated as 1.9 log₁₀ EID₅₀/ml.



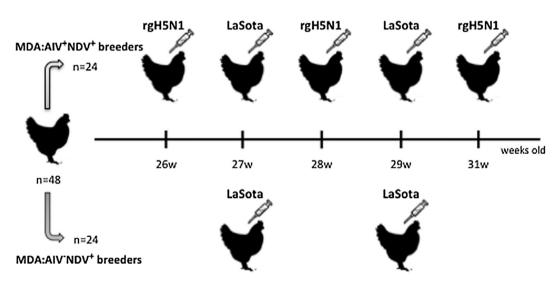


Fig. 1. Vaccination schedule for broiler breeders used to obtain experimental progeny. a. Experiment 1 and b. Experiment 2. MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ breeders, hens that received only NDV vaccinations and produced passively-immunized chicks without AIV MDA, but with NDV MDA (MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ progeny); MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ breeders, hens that received AIV and NDV vaccinations and produced passively-immunized chicks with AIV and NDV MDA (MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny). The rgH5N1 vaccine was administered subcutaneously at 512 HA units/0.5 ml; inactivated LaSota vaccine was administered intramuscularly at pre-inactivation titers equivalent to 7.7 log₁₀ PFU/0.5 ml.

2.7. Statistical analysis

Mortality and number of birds shedding or seroconverting were tested for statistical significance with Fisher's exact test. Significant difference for mean viral titers in swab samples between groups was analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis test or Mann-Whitney test (GraphPad PrismTM Version 5 software). A p-value of <0.05 was considered to be significant.

3. Results

3.1. Experiment 1. Effectiveness of rNDV-H5 live spray vaccination at 3 weeks old in progeny with MDA

<u>Clinical protection.</u> After challenge with HPAIV at 5w, 100% of the sham-vaccinated progeny showed acute severe clinical disease and died irrespective of AIV⁻ or AIV⁺ MDA group, although MDT was slightly longer for MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ (2.8 days) than

MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ (2.1 days) sham progeny (Fig. 3, Table 1). The sprayed rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine conferred 78% and 70% clinical protection from HPAIV challenge in MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ and MDA: AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny, respectively (statistically not different between both groups). The MDT of vaccinated birds that died was slightly longer for MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ (9.5 days) than MDA: AIV⁺NDV⁺ (5 days) progeny, but not statistically different (Fig. 3, Table 1).

<u>Virus shedding.</u> Sham-vaccinated progeny shed high HPAIV titers in the oropharynx at 2 dpc (mean titers 6.8 and 6.9 \log_{10} EID₅₀/ml) (Fig. 4, Table 1). The mean HPAIV oropharyngeal titers for MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ (mean titers 4.3 \log_{10} EID₅₀/ml) and MDA: AIV⁺NDV⁺ (mean titers 4.4 \log_{10} EID₅₀/ml) progeny at 2 dpc were significantly lower than their respective sham-vaccinated progeny (P \leq 0.0001) and were not statistically different from each other (Fig. 4, Table 1). Similar virus titers were shed at 4 dpc, but the lack of adequate numbers of sham-vaccinated progeny prevented statistical evaluations (Fig. 4).

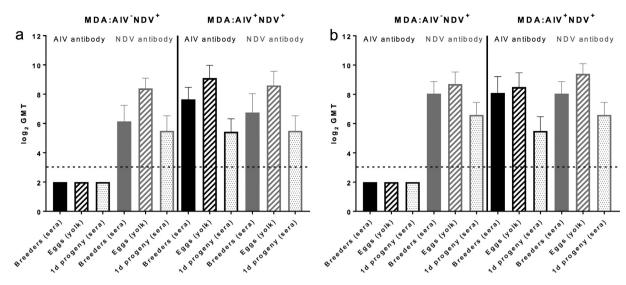


Fig. 2. Antibody titers of broiler breeders and progeny. HI titers for AIV and NDV antibodies in serum from hens, yolk from laid eggs, and serum from 1-day-old progeny of a. Experiment 1 and b. Experiment 2. Titers are expressed as log₂ GMT. Samples with titers below 3 log₂ GMT were considered negative. MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ breeders, hens that received only NDV vaccinations and produced passively-immunized chicks without AIV MDA, but with NDV MDA (MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ progeny); MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ breeders, hens that received AIV and NDV vaccinations and produced passively-immunized chicks with AIV and NDV MDA (MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny).

Table 1Summary of Experiment 1. Progeny were spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age and challenged at 5 weeks of age with 6.9 log₁₀ EID₅₀/0.1 ml of homologous H5N2 clade 2.3.4.4 HPAIV.

MDA status	Vaccines ¹ (age ²)	Survival (MDT) ³	Oropharyngeal shedding (2 dpc) ⁴	HI serology pre-challenge (5w ²) ⁵	
				AIV (clade 2.3.4.4)	NDV (LaSota)
AIV ⁻ NDV ⁺	Sham	0% ^a (2.1)	$10/10^a (6.9)^A$	0/10 (<3)	0/10 (<3)
AIV ⁻ NDV ⁺	rNDV-H5(3w)	78% ^b (9.5)	$10/10^a (4.3)^B$	9/9 (3.9)	8/9 (6.1)
AIV ⁺ NDV ⁺	Sham	0% ^a (2.8)	$10/10^{a} (6.8)^{A}$	0/10 (<3)	0/10 (<3)
AIV ⁺ NDV ⁺	rNDV-H5(3w)	70% ^b (5)	$10/10^{a} (4.4)^{B}$	8/10 (4)	10/10 (6.3)

 $^{^{1}}$ rNDV-H5 = recombinant NDV vaccine with H5 gene insert from clade 2.3.4.4 (7 \log_{10} EID₅₀/dose, spray).

Table 2Summary of Experiment 2. Progeny were vaccinated with rHVT-H5 and rNDV-H5 in different combinations and challenged at 5 weeks of age with 6.9 log₁₀ EID₅₀/0.1 ml of homologous H5N2 clade 2.3.4.4 HPAIV.

MDA status	Vaccines ¹ (age ²)	Survival (MDT) ³	Oropharyngeal shedding (2 dpc) ⁴	HI serology pre-challenge (5w ²) ⁵	
				AIV (clade 2.3.4.4)	NDV (LaSota)
AIV- NDV+	Sham	0% ^a (2.2)	10/10 ^a (7.2) ^A	0/10 (<3)	0/10 (<3)
AIV- NDV+	rHVT-H5(1d)	100% ^b	$4/10^{\rm b} (2.4)^{\rm B}$	10/10 (7.6)	0/10 (<3)
AIV- NDV+	rNDV-H5(1d)	0% ^a (3.4)	$10/10^{a} (6.5)^{A}$	1/10 (3)	0/10 (<3)
AIV- NDV+	rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w)	100% ^b	3/10 ^b (2.3) ^B	10/10 (8.2)	10/10 (6.3)
AIV- NDV+	rNDV-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w)	0% ^a (3.7)	10/10 ^a (5.7) ^A	5/10 (3)	7/10 (4.3)
AIV ⁺ NDV ⁺	Sham	0% ^a (3.6)	10/10 ^a (6.1) ^A	0/10 (<3)	0/10 (<3)
AIV ⁺ NDV ⁺	rHVT-H5(1d)	100% ^b	$3/9^{b}(2.5)^{B}$	9/9 (5.9)	0/9 (<3)
AIV+ NDV+	rNDV-H5(1d)	0% ^a (3.1)	7/8 ^a (5.7) ^A	3/8 (3)	0/8 (<3)
AIV* NDV*	rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w)	100% ^b	5/9 ^b (2.3) ^B	10/10 (6.4)	10/10 (6.2)
AIV ⁺ NDV ⁺	rNDV-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w)	0% ^a (3)	10/10 ^a (7.2) ^A	4/10 (3.3)	9/10 (4.1)

¹ rHVT-H5 = recombinant HVT vaccine with H5 gene insert from clade 2.3.4.4 (3.1 log₁₀ PFU/dose, subcutaneous); rNDV-H5 = recombinant NDV vaccine with H5 gene insert from clade 2.3.4.4 (7 log₁₀ EID₅₀/dose, spray).

 $^{^{2}}$ 3w = 3 weeks old; 5w = 5 weeks old.

³ Different superscript lowercase denotes statistically significant differences in survival between progeny groups (p < 0.05). In parenthesis, mean death time (MDT) of birds that died.

⁴ The numbers represent no, virus positive/total in group followed by mean virus shed titer expressed as $log_{10} ElD_{50}/ml$. Different superscript lowercase denotes statistical significance of number of birds shedding among groups by Fisher Exact or Chi square tests (p < 0.05). Different superscript uppercase denotes statistical significance of shedding titers among groups by Mann-Whitney test (p < 0.05).

⁵ The numbers represent no. serology positive/total in group followed by mean HI titers against AIV or NDV antigen expressed as log₂ GMT. Negative titers defined as < 3 log₂ GMT.

 $^{^{2}}$ 1d = 1 day old; 3w = 3 weeks old; 5w = 5 weeks old.

³ Different superscript lowercase denotes statistically significant differences in survival between progeny groups (p < 0.05). In parenthesis, mean death time (MDT) of birds that died.

⁴ The numbers represent no. virus positive/total in group followed by mean virus shed titer expressed as $log_{10} ElD_{50}/ml$. Different superscript lowercase denotes statistical significance of number of birds shedding among groups by Fisher Exact or Chi square tests (p < 0.05). Different superscript uppercase denotes statistical significance of shedding titers among groups by Mann-Whitney test (p < 0.05).

⁵ The numbers represent no. serology positive/total in group followed by mean HI titers against AIV or NDV antigen expressed as log₂ GMT. Negative titers defined as <3 log₂ GMT.

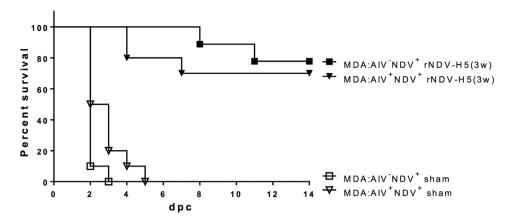


Fig. 3. Survival curve of Experiment 1. MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ rNDV-H5(3w), progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ rNDV-H5(3w), progeny with AIV and NDV MDA spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ sham, progeny with AIV and NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ sham, progeny with AIV and NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age.

Serology. The MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny had high AIV MDA (5.4 log₂ GMT) at 1 day old, which completely declined in all birds below the detectable limit by 3 weeks old (Fig. 5a). Both MDA: AIV*NDV* and MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny that received spray rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine seroconverted with group AIV titers of 3.9 and 4 log₂ GMT, respectively, at the time of challenge (prechallenge or 2 weeks post vaccination) (Fig. 5a, Table 1). These vaccinated birds had an anamnestic response (2.6–4 fold increase) after challenge (statistically not different between MDA:AIV*NDV* and MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny) that conferred protection against lethal HPAIV challenge. Interestingly, the 5 vaccinated birds that succumbed to infection had no (<3 log₂ GMT) or low (3–4 log₂ GMT) AIV titers at challenge. In contrast, all sham-vaccinated progeny lacked AIV titers at challenge, either because they never had AIV MDA titers (MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny) or because AIV MDA had

2 dpc

4 dpc

4 dpc

A dpc

A

Fig. 4. Scatter plot of oropharyngeal shedding from progeny of Experiment 1. Shedding titers are expressed as \log_{10} with error bars. The limit of detection was 2.0 \log_{10} ElD₅₀/ml; for statistical purposes, qRRT-PCR negative samples were treated as 1.9 \log_{10} ElD₅₀/ml. MDA:AIV^NDV† rNDV-H5(3w), progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV*NDV† rNDV+H5(3w), progeny with AIV and NDV MDA spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV*NDV† sham, progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV*NDV† sham, progeny with AIV and NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age.

already declined below the detectable limit (MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny) (Fig. 5a, Table 1), and were not protected against HPAIV challenge. All progeny had high NDV MDA (5.5 log₂ GMT) at 1 day old, which completely declined by 3 weeks old (Fig. 5b). Both MDA: AIV*NDV* and MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny that received spray rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine seroconverted with group NDV titers of 6.1 and 6.3 log₂ GMT, respectively, at the time of challenge (Fig. 5b, Table 1). These vaccinated birds maintained their NDV titers after challenge, which were not statistically different between both progeny groups (Fig. 5b).

3.2. Experiment 2. Effectiveness of prime-boost live vaccination in progeny with MDA

Clinical protection. After challenge with HPAIV at 5w, 100% of the sham-vaccinated progeny showed acute severe clinical disease and died irrespective of AIV⁻ or AIV⁺ MDA group; MDT was slightly longer for MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ (3.6 days) than MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ (2.2 days) sham progeny, but not statistically different (Fig. 6, Table 2). Progeny that received spray rNDV-H5(1d) and/or rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine had 100% mortality after HPAIV challenge; MDT was slightly longer for rNDV-H5 vaccinated MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ progeny than corresponding sham-vaccinated progeny (not statistically different), but the same was not observed for MDA: AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny. Progeny that received rHVT-H5(1d) vaccine, irrespective of rNDV-H5(3w) boost, had 100% clinical protection against challenge regardless of AIV⁻ or AIV⁺ MDA group (Fig. 6, Table 2).

<u>Virus shedding.</u> Sham-vaccinated MDA:AIV-NDV+ and MDA: AIV+NDV+ progeny shed high titers of HPAIV in oropharynx at 2 dpc (mean titers 6.1 and 7.2 log_{10} EID₅₀/ml) (Fig. 7, Table 2). Progeny that received spray rNDV-H5(1d) and/or rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine shed similar quantities of virus in oropharynx at 2 dpc as compared to sham-vaccinated progeny, with no statistical difference in the numbers of birds shedding virus nor the titers of virus shed. Similar virus titers were shed at 4 dpc, but the lack of adequate numbers of sham-vaccinated progeny prevented statistical evaluations (Fig. 7). In contrast, MDA:AIV-NDV+ and MDA:AIV+-NDV⁺ progeny that received rHVT-H5(1d) vaccine, irrespective of rNDV-H5(3w) boost, had a significant decrease in both shedding titers and numbers of birds shedding virus at 2 dpc as compared to corresponding sham-vaccinated progeny (Fig. 7, Table 2). Virus titers shed by these vaccinated birds at 4 dpc remained statistically not different from titers shed at 2 dpc (Fig. 7).

<u>Serology.</u> As expected, MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ progeny lacked AIV titers at day of hatch. Following rNDV-H5(1d) vaccine, this progeny seroconverted with low AIV titers of 4.1 and 4.3 \log_2 GMT at 1 week, which gradually declined but were still present at 3 weeks (3.4 and 3.6 \log_2 GMT) (Fig. 8a, Table 2). The rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine had no effect on AIV titers, as evidenced by very low levels at the time of challenge (5/10 birds with minimal detectable titers, 3 \log_2 GMT) and lack of protection (Fig. 8a, Table 2). Progeny that received rHVT-H5(1d) vaccine had gradually increasing AIV titers that reached protective levels at challenge (Fig. 8a, Table 2). AIV titers of rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w) vaccinated progeny were slightly higher than rHVT-H5(1d) vaccinated progeny at challenge, and were significantly higher at termination (Fig. 8a, Table 2).

The MDA:AIV*NDV* progeny had high AIV MDA (5.5 log₂ GMT) at 1 day old, which gradually declined (Fig. 8b). In the presence of AIV MDA, the rNDV-H5(1d) and/or rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine had minimal effect in boosting these AIV titers, which in these groups reached very low levels by challenge (3/8 birds with detectable titers, 3 log₂ GMT; and 4/10 birds with detectable titers, 3.3 log₂ GMT) and were unable to provide clinical protection (Fig. 8a, Table 2). In the presence of AIV MDA, the rHVT-H5(1d) vaccine generated a delayed and significantly lower AIV response by the time of challenge (5.9 log₂ GMT) (Fig. 8b, Table 2) as compared to corresponding MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ progeny (7.6 log₂ GMT) (Fig. 8a, Table 2). AIV titers of rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w) vacci-

nated progeny were slightly higher than rHVT-H5(1d) vaccinated progeny at challenge and termination (Fig. 8a, Table 2), suggesting a boost response from the rNDV-H5(3w) vaccination.

Both MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ and MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny had high NDV MDA titers (6.6 log₂ GMT) at 1 day old, which gradually declined but were still present at 3 weeks (3 and 3.3 log₂ GMT, respectively) (Fig. 8c and d). There was a correlation between ≥5 log₂ GMT at 1 week old and presence of antibodies at 3 weeks old (p = 0.0048) (data not shown). The rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine following rNDV-H5(1d) generated a slight increase in NDV titers by challenge (4.1 and 4.3 log₂ GMT) (Fig. 8c and d, Table 2). MDA: AIV⁻NDV⁺ and MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny that received rHVT-H5 (1d) + rNDV-H5(3w) vaccines experienced a boost in their NDV titers from 3.3 to 6.2 and 6.3 log₂ GMT pre-challenge, respectively (Fig. 8c and d, Table 2).

4. Discussion

The continued outbreaks of HPAIV in domestic poultry world-wide emphasize the need for sustainable surveillance for variant field viruses and research to improve vaccine protection through updating seed strains. Routine vaccination may assist in reducing disease incidence and allowing the continuation of poultry production in rural settings, which maintains the livelihoods and food security of the rural poor [5]. There is growing interest for new

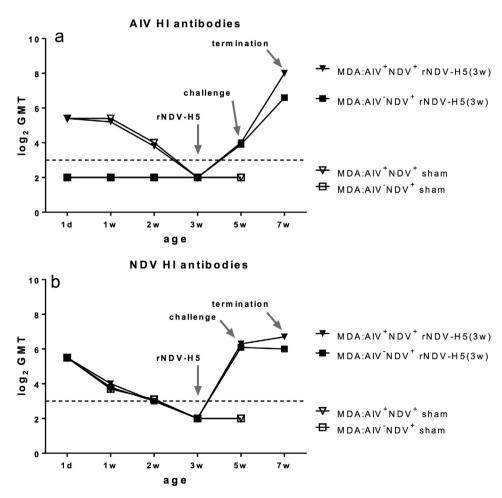


Fig. 5. Serology from progeny of Experiment 1. Follow-up HI titers for a. AIV and b. NDV antibodies from 1-day-old to 7-week-old progeny. rNDV-H5 spray vaccination at 3 weeks old, challenge with clade 2.3.4.4 Tk/MN/15 virus at 5 weeks old, and termination at 7 weeks old are indicated. Titers are expressed as \log_2 GMT. Samples with titers below 3 \log_2 GMT were considered negative. MDA:AIV $^-$ NDV $^+$ rNDV-H5(3w), progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV $^+$ NDV $^+$ rNDV-H5(3w), progeny with AIV and NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age; MDA:AIV $^+$ NDV $^+$ sham, progeny with AIV and NDV MDA sham-vaccinated at 3 weeks of age.

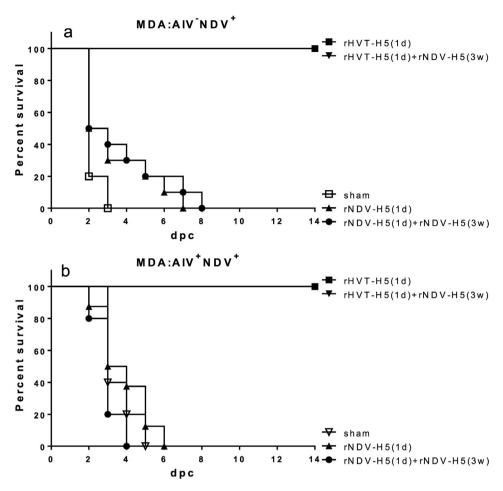


Fig. 6. Survival curves of Experiment 2. a. MDA:AIV⁻NDV⁺ group (progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA) and b. MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ group (progeny with AIV and NDV MDA). rHVT-H5(1d), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age; rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age and spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; rNDV-H5(1d), progeny spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 1 day of age and 3 weeks of age; sham, progeny sham-vaccinated at 1 day of age and 3 weeks of age.

vaccines and vaccination programs using recombinant vector vaccines that can control multiple diseases at the same time, overcome MDA interference, and be mass-applied in the hatchery or later on the farm. In this study, we assessed the effectiveness of a vaccination program utilizing spray-applied rNDV-H5 vector vaccine and subcutaneous rHVT-H5 vector vaccine in commercial broilers with MDA to protect against homologous HPAIV challenge.

High AIV and/or NDV antibody titers were obtained in sera of hyper-immunized broiler breeders (Fig. 2) and were comparable to titers in other maternal immunity studies and in countries vaccination to both diseases is implemented [17,24,30,31,41,43,57,58]. Antibody titers in sera of 1-day-old progeny corresponded to 68–90% of antibody titers in sera of breeders and 64-76% of antibody titers in yolk. This suggests that egg yolk samples could be used for inference of AIV and NDV MDA HI titers in the progeny, as previously suggested [58–61]. In Experiment 1, both AIV and NDV MDA completely declined to non-detectable titers by 3 weeks post-hatch. Because of the lack of MDA interference, the rNDV-H5(3w) spray-vaccine was able to replicate and elicit high and protective antibody titers (4 log₂ GMT AIV and 6 log₂ GMT NDV), leading to 70% and 78% survival and 3 log₁₀ average reduction in virus shed following homologous HPAIV challenge. Although these are sub-optimal protection results, they hint at the potential to use rNDV-H5 spray-vaccination not only at the hatchery, as described in prior studies [33,62], but also on the farm in offspring with extremely low or no AIV and/or NDV MDA. Further research is needed to fully optimize spray-vaccine of rNDV-

H5 on the farm by increasing vaccine dose, better timing vaccine administration, or testing other mass-applied delivery methods. A recent efficacy study using the same rNDV-H5 vaccine but in a different chicken model (i.e. SPF White Leghorn chickens without MDA) produced clinical protection against Tk/MN/15 challenge and reduction of virus shedding when the vaccine was administered by the intramuscular (100% survival) and spray (90% survival) routes [42]. In our study, the absence of MDA at the time of vaccination denotes a window of vulnerability to circulating HPAIV and NDV and, in an attempt to provide protection in the young susceptible broiler population, an earlier rNDV-H5 vaccination would be needed and would require overcoming possible AIV and NDV MDA interference. As expected by the lack of MDA at the time of challenge in sham-vaccinated progeny, 100% mortality and high shed virus titers were observed irrespective of AIV MDA status at the time of hatch. Whether an earlier challenge at 2 weeks (when AIV MDA were still present) instead of 5 weeks of age would have had a different survival outcome and replication efficiency in sham-vaccinated progeny remains to be determined.

In Experiment 2, our goal was to assess how prime-boost vaccination protocols using rHVT-H5 (subcutaneously at 1 day) and rNDV-H5 (spray at 1 day, 3 weeks, or both) vaccines can overcome MDA interference and provide better protection against homologous HPAIV challenge. The rHVT-H5(1d), irrespective of rNDV-H5 (3w) boost, conferred 100% clinical protection and significantly reduced virus shedding titers and number of birds shedding in both MDA:AIV-NDV+ and MDA:AIV+NDV+ progeny groups. In con-

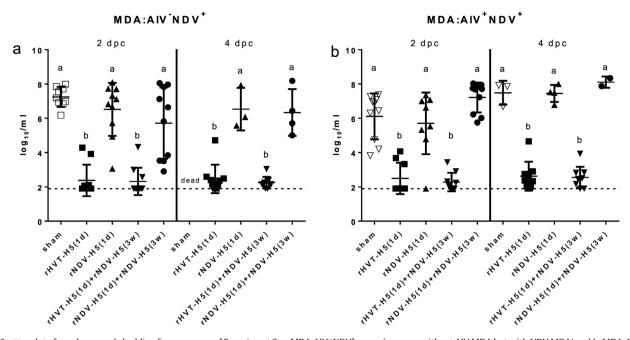


Fig. 7. Scatter plot of oropharyngeal shedding from progeny of Experiment 2. a. MDA:AIV $^-$ NDV $^+$ group (progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA) and b. MDA:AIV $^+$ NDV $^+$ group (progeny with AIV and NDV MDA). Shedding titers are expressed as \log_{10} with error bars. The limit of detection was 2.0 \log_{10} EID₅₀/ml; for statistical purposes, qRRT-PCR negative samples were treated as 1.9 \log_{10} EID₅₀/ml. rHVT-H5(1d), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age; rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age and spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; rNDV-H5(1d), progeny spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 1 day of age and at 3 weeks of age; sham, progeny sham-vaccinated at 1 day of age and 3 weeks of age.

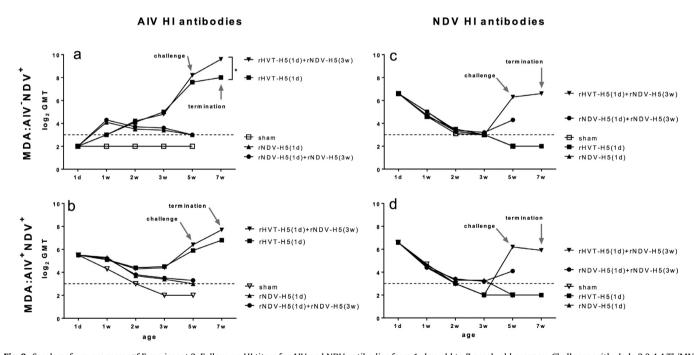


Fig. 8. Serology from progeny o⁻f Experiment 2. Follow-up HI titers for AIV and NDV antibodies from 1-day-old to 7-week-old progeny. Challenge with clade 2.3.4.4 Tk/MN/15 virus at 5 weeks old and termination at 7 weeks old are indicated. Titers are expressed as log₂ GMT. Samples with titers below 3 log₂ GMT were considered negative. MDA: AIV⁻NDV⁺, progeny without AIV MDA but with NDV MDA; MDA:AIV⁺NDV⁺ progeny with AIV and NDV MDA; rHVT-H5(1d), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age; rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w), progeny subcutaneously vaccinated with rHVT-H5 at 1 day of age and spray-vaccinated with rNDV-H5 at 3 weeks of age; rNDV-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5 at 1 day of age and 3 weeks of age; sham, progeny sham-vaccinated at 1 day of age and 3 weeks of age.

trast, progeny that received spray rNDV-H5(1d) and/or rNDV-H5(3w) vaccine had 100% mortality irrespective of the MDA group. Our results demonstrate that rHVT-H5(1d) could overcome AIV MDA present at hatch and produce a protective immune response against HPAIV. In contrast, the replication and H5-insert expres-

sion of rNDV-H5 (both at 1 day and at 3 weeks) were negatively impacted by AIV and/or NDV MDA. These results align with previous studies which indicate that rHVT-H5 would be better as a primary single dose vaccine or priming vector [39,63] in a prime-boost regime than rNDV-H5 [24,28,31,33,43,63] for progeny with

NDV and/or H5 AlV MDA. It is worth emphasizing that the presence of H5 AlV MDA in MDA:AlV*NDV* progeny in our study seemed to interfere to a certain degree with rHVT-H5(1d), since it generated a significantly lower (albeit still protective) AlV response as compared to corresponding MDA:AlV*NDV* progeny. Besides, because breeders received cell-associated HVT *in ovo* vaccination that induces protection through cell-mediated immunity, any antibodies that passed to the chick failed to prevent rHVT-H5 expression and immunity to AlV.

Differences in protection conferred by rNDV-H5 vaccine between Experiments 1 and 2 could be explained by interference of residual MDA antibodies at the time of rNDV-H5 vaccination in Experiment 2, either due to higher antibody titers in hens and progeny, and/or due to interference by prime vaccination at day of age. While progeny in Experiment 1 had no measurable AIV or NDV MDA at 3 weeks (i.e. time of vaccination), progeny in Experiment 2 had both AIV and NDV MDA and/or titers elicited by priming vaccination at 1 day, negatively impacting rNDV-H5 replication at 3 weeks (i.e. time of boost) and resulting in no or minimal clinical protection and high challenge virus shedding. The presence of >5 log₂ GMT of AIV MDA at 1 week of age correlated with the presence of MDA at 3 weeks of age, which predicted interference with rNDV-H5 vaccination. Therefore, measuring the level of MDA at a very young age in offspring obtained from hyper-immunized breeders could be a strategy to predict the optimal timing for vaccination when rNDV-H5 vaccine is used, as has been suggested for vaccination against IBDV [64,65].

The AIV titers of rHVT-H5(1d) + rNDV-H5(3w) vaccinated progeny were slightly higher than rHVT-H5(1d) vaccinated progeny at challenge, and significantly higher at termination. It is therefore hypothesized that the primary H5-antibody response with rHVT-H5(1d) was amplified by memory B cells after rNDV-H5(3w) boost. Nonetheless, immunologic protection mechanisms other than the systemic humoral response, such as local mucosal and cellular immunity, could be implicated. A single dose of rHVT-H5 at 1 day has been recommended to protect for the short 7-week life of a broiler [36]. However, a low cost mass-applied booster vaccination may be needed to provide protection in longer-lived poultry. Based on our study, a higher dose of rNDV-H5(3w) should be examined as a possible strategy to overcome the inhibitory effect of low AIV and/or NDV MDA titers and increase H5 expression, as has been proposed [43].

The use of commercial broilers in the current study allowed for a more practical interpretation of effectiveness for virus vectored vaccine field application than the use of SPF White Leghorn chickens. Indeed, broilers in the field are constantly exposed to a wider range of pathogens (i.e. not SPF) and vaccines (i.e. pre-existing immunity) and are genetically programmed for a lower primary humoral response to vaccines [66]. Furthermore, a protective immune response in the field is more difficult to achieve than in an experimental setting and can be hampered due to improper use of vaccines, poor management, or co-infection with other pathogens. These factors may significantly reduce the success rate of vaccination programs under field conditions as compared to single vaccination of SPF White Leghorn chickens in an experimental setting, thus requiring multiple booster vaccinations [67,68].

In conclusion, the present study contributes to a better understanding of the practical use of rHVT-H5 and rNDV-H5 vector vaccines in commercial broilers within H5 AIV-enzootic countries which have H5 AIV and/or NDV MDA. We demonstrated that optimized spray-application of rNDV-H5 vaccine could be feasible on the farm in the absence of AIV and NDV MDA at 3 weeks of age, and that 1-day application of rHVT-H5 is able to overcome the neutralizing effect of AIV MDA present at 1 day of age, therefore making rHVT-H5 a better priming vector than rNDV-H5 for progeny with AIV and NDV MDA. Certain questions remain unanswered

and open new lines of research: (i) would rNDV-H5 vaccinated progeny have been protected against velogenic NDV challenge; (ii) would higher doses of rNDV-H5 vaccine be able to overcome low titers of AIV and NDV MDA and achieve satisfactory protection against homologous H5 HPAIV challenge; and (iii) will chimeric rNDV-based vector vaccines [69] or other APMV-based vector vaccines (APMV-2 to -13) be able to overcome NDV MDA?

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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